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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a comprehensive review of international research on the problems of beginning teachers facing "reality shock" in their first years of teaching. A discussion is given on the question of how teacher educators could anticipate the problems their students will encounter when they enter the profession. Particular focus is on induction programs and measures to improve the mode of new teachers' entry into teaching. Three frameworks for looking at the development of the beginning teacher are presented. From the viewpoint of these developmental frameworks, the threshold period that confronts the beginning teacher is considered as a transitional state to a higher level of development. In discussing how teacher training programs can be improved, it is pointed out that the quality of teacher education programs is only one way of improving and maintaining a highly qualified teaching staff in the schools, and that good teacher education is a necessary ingredient but insufficient by itself to produce better teachers. Over 90 references are listed. (JD)

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ON BECOMING A TEACHER: AN ANALYSIS OF INITIAL TRAINING

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"My first week of teaching left me in despair, almost wishing I'd finished my doctorate in philosophy and could teach Wittgenstein to a group of docile graduate students. The first mistake I made was to introduce myself to the class as Herb instead of Mr. Kohl. I had done so at Walden and it seemed like a good idea. But twenty blocks away at Public School 145, the only adults you called by their first names were those you didn't respect and were trying to bait. In one short week I went from informal Herb, with an open collar and sweater, to Mr. Kohl, with a suit and tie, a very controlled manner, and an unnatural stern look. My students had quickly taught me that I had to establish my authority before I could teach them anything.

In fact, after several weeks I found myself doing everything I had sworn never to do in the classroom... In my heart I wanted to talk to my students, to share what I knew with them and find out who they were and what they knew. Yet all I was doing was filling up time and trying to get through the day without a scene... After a while little things happened that made our lives together better... Little by little I felt that I was becoming myself in the classroom and abandoning my stance as the Teacher".

Herbert Kohl, Growing minds: On becoming a teacher.

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In this short fragment Kohl (1985) chronicles his first experience as a new teacher. For many beginning teachers the first professional year is a difficult one. The difference between their ideals during teacher training and what goes on in schools is enormous. Actual teaching is different from what they had expected. The first year is also a period of intense learning. New insights and skills have to be acquired and mastered. This on-the-job learning is mostly based on the trial-and-error method. The initiation into the teaching profession is for many beginning teachers a dramatic period. For some, it is a very traumatic year. This transition from teacher training to the first teaching post is often referred to as 'the reality shock'.

In this paper I will first describe this concept of reality shock. After that I will present a comprehensive review of problems of beginning teachers in their first years of teaching. This review is based on international research on problems of beginning teachers. Then I will discuss the question of how teacher educators could anticipate on these problems their students will encounter when they enter the profession. Then I will pay attention to induction programmes and measures to improve the mode of new teachers' entry into teaching. After that I will present three frameworks for looking at the development of becoming a teacher. From the viewpoint of these developmental frameworks the threshold period that confronts the beginning teacher may be considered as a transitional state to a higher level of development. Finally, I will discuss the problem of enhancing the quality of teacher education. This quality could be improved by better training programmes that prepare beginning teachers to be more qualified for their jobs. However, the quality of teacher education programmes is only one way of improving and maintaining a highly qualified teaching staff in our schools. Good teacher education is a necessary ingredient but insufficient by itself to produce better teachers.

1. THE REALITY SHOCK

The mistake of a beginning teacher in Kohl's chronicle is to allow the kids call him 'Herb' instead of 'Mr. Kohl' and then to find himself mistrusted by other teachers and the principal is an aspect of the experience a beginning teacher may encounter in the transition from teacher training to the first teaching post. In English and German literature this transition is often referred to as the 'reality shock', 'transition shock', 'Praxisshock' or 'Reinwascheffekt'. In general, this concept is used to indicate the collapse of the missionary ideals formed during teacher training by the harsh and rude reality of everyday classroom life.

Many studies provide evidence that newly trained teachers experience significant shifts in their attitudes. Student teachers become increasingly progressive, or liberal in their attitudes towards education and pupils during their preservice training and then shift to opposing or more traditional, conservative, or custodial views as they move into student teaching and their first years of teaching (e.g. Dann et al, 1978; Lacey, 1977; McArthur, 1981; Olgers & Riesenkamp, 1980). Lagana (1970) call this decline in positive attitudes toward education and pupils 'the curve of disenchantment'. In most studies the notion of reality shock is rated negatively, because the 'innovative competence' aimed at by the teacher training colleges is lost in the first year of teaching. However, a healthy outcome of the process of confrontation between ideals and reality may be a more realistic view of the teaching task.

Different factors may contribute to a reality shock for beginning teachers. The most important factors are grouped by M&tr.uller-Fohrbrodt, Cloetta & Dann (1978) into personal and situational causes. Possible explanations for a reality shock may be:

- A wrong choice for the teaching profession. Needs that cannot be satisfied by the teaching profession, may lead to disappointment and failures.
- Improper attitudes and unsuitable personality characteristics. According to Reichwein & Frech (1971) a teacher has to possess the following qualities: cognitive complexity, a low level of anxiety, role-distance, intrinsic motives for the teaching profession and a readiness to take risks. The lack of these characteristics may cause a reality shock.
- Inadequate professional training. Beginning teachers are in some respects poorly equipped with the skills needed for teaching. In a study based on visits made by Her Majesty's Inspectorate to a sample of 294 schools in England and Wales in which newly trained graduate teachers were spending their first year of teaching, HMI concluded that as many as a quarter of the teachers in the sample were deficient in a number of the teaching skills which they might have been expected to acquire through their training (HMI, 1982). Beginning teachers usually complain about their teaching education programmes: they are too theoretical and have little relevance to classroom practice. They also often complain that teacher educators are too far removed from everyday classroom life. In some countries teacher educators are getting older and older, young teacher-educators with new and fresh ideas cannot be appointed or have to be dismissed because of declining student-teachers' enrolments. So, in a time of an oversupply of teachers and declining enrollments, the gap between teacher education and what goes on in schools may increase.
- A problematic school situation: a) authoritarian, bureaucratic, and hierarchical relationships; b) fixed organizational structures (e.g., a fixed schedule, departementalization); c) inadequate staffing and a shortage of materials and supplies; d) the absence of explicity

stated educational objectives; e) loneliness in the work place; f) parents who lay special emphasis on the transmission of knowledge; g) the habituation of pupils to an authoritarian teaching style; i) the multiplicitly of tasks that a teacher must fulfill. Sometimes, beginning teachers are given more difficult or less able classes, or they have to teach subjects in which they are not trained.

I have described these possible causes of a reality shock here to sketch a frame of reference for the perceived problems of beginning teachers in their first year(s). These problems are presented in the next paragraph.

2. PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

The most frequent type of research on beginning teachers has focused in one form or another on the problems of the beginning teacher. These problems have been studied since the turn of this century. Research on problems of beginning teachers is based on the assumption that knowledge of the most frequent problems of beginning teachers may provide important information for the improvement and (re)designing of pre-service and in-service programmes and for improved supervision and induction practices. No teacher training institution can be indifferent to or ignorant of the problems their graduates encounter in their first teaching posts.

My international bibliographic search yielded 91 studies on the problems of beginning teachers, all conducted after 1960. An account of this literature-search and of the design of the sampling of problems was published in the **Review of Educational Research** journal. For the purpose of this conference I have added to the orginal list of 83 studies 8 new studies: Echternacht (1981), Feldens (1986), Grant & Zeichner (1981), Janssens (1987), Jordell (1985), Kremer-Hayon (1987), Reid (1985), Sheridan & Pyra (1975). As can be seen, five of them were recently published.

Of these 91 studies, 57 were from the United States, 7 from West Germany, 7 from the United Kingdom, 5 from the Netherlands, 4 from Australia, 3 from Canada, 2 from Switzerland, 1 from Finland, 1 from Norway, 1 from Belgium (Flanders), 1 from Israel, 1 from Austria, and 1 from Brazil. All studies were based on empirical research.

Most studies in the sample used the questionnaire method, more specifically a rating scale. A minority of the studies used interviews, observations or essays. Studies with notes from diaries from beginning teachers with reflections on their first year(s) of teaching were excluded, although some of them are important because they portray some

real life aspects of the young teachers (e.g., Otty, 1972; Hannam et al, 1976; Ryan, 1970, 1980; Kohl, 1985).

A problem was defined as a difficulty that beginning teachers encounter in the performance of their task, which hinders the achievement of intended goals. Beginning teachers were defined as teachers who had not yet completed three years of teaching after qualifying as teachers.

To identify the most serious problems of beginning teachers a list was compiled of the most frequently mentioned problems. From each study the 15 most serious problems were selected and classified according to their importance and rank ordered. In total 68 different problems were identified. The results of this analysis were grouped into three categories to identify differences between school types: primary education, secondary education and primary and secondary education (if no distinction between school types was made). Studies that made a distinction between problems of beginning teachers in primary schools and in secondary schools were counted twice, so that the total amount of studies added up to 100.

The results of these 100 studies are summarized in Table 1. The first two columns refer to all the studies reviewed, the remaining ones to various subsamples. The **rank** of a problem is based on the number of times a problem was mentioned in the sampled studies; the raw figures are given in the **frequency** column. Those studies that did mention a problem were scored according to how serious they rated it to be. The **median** gives an indication of how serious the problem was seen to be across these studies that mentioned it. (The median is the number that divides the ranked figures into halves so that half the scores are larger than the median and half are smaller.) The original scoring ranged from 15, for the most serious problem, to 1, for the least serious.

As shown in Table 1, **classroom discipline** is the most seriously perceived problem area of beginning teachers. Two comments must be made. First, not all beginning teachers experience problems with classroom discipline. In the sampled studies the percentage of beginning teachers with discipline problems varies from 12% to 83%. But in nearly all studies this problem ranks first. Second, class discipline is not an unambiguous concept. What is called discipline or order by one teacher may be called disorder by another teacher and vice versa. For beginning teachers, experienced teachers, principals, administrators, inspectors, parents and pupils the content of this concept may differ. Labels like classroom discipline and classroom management may be regarded as code words for a whole host of specific difficulties and point to kinds of skills that beginning teachers

Table 1. List of the 24 most perceived problems of beginning teachers.

RANK ORDER	PROBLEMS	ALL STUDIES		ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		SECONDARY SCHOOL		ELEM. & SECON. SCHOOL	
		FREQ.	MED.	FREQ.	MED.	FREQ.	MED.	FREQ.	MED.
1	Classroom discipline	85	13.0	26	13.5	24	13.5	35	13.0
2	Motivating pupils	50	12.8	12	12.3	17	14.0	21	12.0
3	Dealing with individual differences	46	13.0	17	12.0	13	14.0	16	12.0
4	Assessing pupils' work	38	10.0	13	10.0	8	9.0	17	11.0
5	Relations with parents	36	9.0	13	11.0	5	6.0	18	8.8
6	Insufficient materials and supplies	32	11.5	10	12.5	7	10.0	15	11.0
7.5	Organization of class work	30	12.3	12	12.8	2	13.8	16	11.0
7.5	Dealing with problems of individual pupils	30	12.3	9	11.0	9	12.5	12	13.0
9	Heavy teaching load resulting in insufficient prep. time	29	11.5	7	12.0	8	8.8	14	11.3
10	Relations with colleagues	27	8.5	7	10.5	8	10.5	12	7.0
11	Planning of lessons and schooldays	24	11.3	7	11.0	4	12.5	13	11.0
12	Effective use of different teaching methods	21	12.0	5	12.5	6	11.5	10	12.3
13	Awareness of school policies and rules	20	11.0	6	10.5	5	13.5	9	11.0
14.5	Relations with principals/ administrators	18	9.0	5	9.0	5	6.0	8	9.5
14.5	Determining learning level of pupils	18	11.5	4	13.3	7	10.0	7	11.0
16.5	Burden of clerical work	16	9.0	4	11.0	1	(7.0)	11	9.0
16.5	Knowledge of subject matter	16	10.0	5	11.0	5	11.0	6	8.3
18	Inadequate school equipment	15	11.0	6	10.5	2	11.3	7	11.0
19.5	Effective use of textbooks and curriculum guides	13	8.5	5	7.0	2	14.0	6	7.8
19.5	Dealing with slow learners	13	12.0	3	11.0	6	12.0	4	13.0
21	Dealing with pupils of different cultures and deprived backgrounds	12	9.0	3	3.0	2	9.0	7	9.0
22	Lack of spare time	11	11.0	1	(5.0)	3	10.0	7	11.0
23	Inadequate guidance & support	10	9.0	2	9.8	1	(14.0)	7	8.0
24	Large class size	8	9.5	3	9.0	0	-	5	10.0
Number of studies		N= 100		N= 32		N= 29		N= 39	

Note. This Table was adapted from: Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers. Review of Educational Research, 54, 143-178. For the purpose of this article 8 additional studies were included.

usually lack and to needs they have for assistance (McDonald & Elias, 1983). According to the English Inspectorate (HMI, 1982) the factors most frequently associated with good classroom management were: "A crisp, orderly, punctual start to the lesson with any necessary preparations completed beforehand, and a planned and tidy ending, an assured manner, good use of the eye and voice and the giving, where necessary, of clear instructions by the teacher."

Motivation of pupils is the second highest ranked problem in the view of beginning teachers. Table 1 shows a clear difference between school types. Beginning secondary teachers report more problems in motivating pupils than beginning primary teachers. The beginning teacher often thinks that pupils are eagerly waiting to be instructed, that they are highly motivated. This image soon appears to be incorrect. This misunderstanding can in part be attributed to the training institutions. There is a tendency for teacher educators to describe pupils as they would like them to be rather than as they are. Teacher preparation tends to deal with what ought to be going on in schools rather than what is actually happening (Ryan, 1970). This tension between what should be and what is has to be solved by the beginning teachers. Most of them are forced to reshape their ideals and standards. Studies in attitude change point to a 'curve of disenchantment'. Data on truancy and school absenteeism, dropouts, vandalism, teacher stress and teacher burn-out suggest that motivation is a problem in our schools. It is not easy to be a beginning teacher nowadays. A grim labour market with restricted job possibilities for school leavers, cuts in financial budgets, a greater emphasis on leisure activities, the influence of the mass media and changed family conditions may all contribute to the problem of motivation at school.

Dealing with individual differences among pupils is the third most frequently mentioned problem. Again, the difference between ideal education (the continuing development of the learning potential of each pupil) and what goes on in schools (dealing with class diversity so that instruction can be workable) is enormous. Adapting instruction to individual levels proves to be difficult in a classroom with 25-30 pupils.

Assessing pupils' work is the fourth most frequently mentioned problem. Accumulating reliable information and acting as an evaluator are problematic activities. On the one hand, schools are supposed to stimulate the unique capacities of each pupil to their full potential, on the other hand schools are supposed to socialize pupils and prepare them for roles in society by processes of selection and role allocation. This discrepancy gives rise to problems. Adapting instruction to individual needs and pupils' assessment are at about the same level of ranked problems.

Relations with parents is the fifth most frequently mentioned problem. The problematic relationship with parents has several aspects. Beginning teachers complain about

inadequate preparation for establishing and maintaining proper relationships with the pupils' parents. Contacting parents and the organization of parents' nights are problematic. Furthermore, beginning teachers complain about parents' insufficient support for their ideas and about parents' inadequate interest in the well-being of their children at school. Many complaints are also directed at parents' lack of confidence in the beginning teachers competence. An observational study by McIntosh suggests that parents put pressure on beginning elementary teachers through phone calls and comments made during visits to the school. "The parents tend to emphasize the value of traditional academic work, and to indicate support for quiet and order in the classroom" (McIntosh, 1977, p. 3193).

Because Table 1 is fairly self- explanatory, I will not discuss the remaining problems. In addition to the problems listed in this table, the following were reported in the sampled studies: doubts and worries about own competence, inexperience with audio-visual aids, relationships with pupils, relationships with the school community, insufficient preparation for the job of teaching. All these problems were mentioned frequently.

Another difficulty which surprises many beginning teachers is that teaching is a physically exhausting job. In our research 90% of the beginning teachers felt exhausted. The heavy teaching load caused different physical complaints, among which the abnormal amount of sleep required was the most prominent one. (Veenman, Berkelaar & Berkelaar, 1983, p. 32).

Ryan (1980, p. 7) offers a suggestion as to why exhaustion of this magnitude is commonly reported. "One reason is that new teachers are not in a condition for the physical and mental demands of teaching. They are not prepared for the strain of being in command, of being responsible for so many people for so long each day". After a while, however, teachers become toughened to the routine of school.

The listed problems are not only problems as perceived by the beginning teachers themselves but also the problems of beginning teachers as perceived by their principals. Beginning teachers, according to their principals, have problems with class discipline (this problem has a high priority in their views), in dealing with differences between pupils, motivating students, teaching slow learners, organizing classes, assessing pupils' progress, and devising schemes of work (Veenman, 1984).

Not all problems in Table 1 are exclusively problems of beginning teachers. In their study Evans & Trible (1986) identified and compared the perceived teaching problems of preservice teachers with Veenman's rankings of problems of beginning teachers. The overall cluster of professional problems by preservice and beginning teachers indicated degrees of semblance, although certain priorities emerged to differentiate these two groups. In contrast to beginning teachers, preservice teachers gave lower rankings to

classroom discipline, assessing pupils' work, relations with parents and higher rankings to motivating students, dealing with problems of individual students, and knowledge of subject matter. This disparity in perception of teaching problems seemed to be accounted for by the relative lack of direct classroom experience among teachers in combination with lack of full responsibility for a group of pupils.

In several studies from different countries experienced teachers also have difficulties with several of the identified problem areas. The following problems are reported frequently: too many administrative duties, too many pupils, an unsatisfactory social position, discipline problems, overloaded teaching task, inadequate teaching materials, motivating pupils, lack of time, helping individuals and a basic uncertainty to whether or not one is successful as a teacher (Veenman, 1984; Jordell, 1985; Feldens, 1986).

These problems of student teachers and veteran teachers are listed here to illustrate that not only beginners experience problems and that these problems are not linked exclusively to the entrance into the profession. They do not suggest that these problems cannot be solved or that it is not necessary to take formal steps to induct new members into the teaching profession. Beginning teachers experience difficulties and need help in their first years of teaching.

Finally, one should not conclude from the listed problems that new teachers are discontent with their working conditions or that they are dissatisfied with their jobs. Most of the beginning teachers report that they are satisfied with their jobs (Veenman, 1984). In their survey the English Inspectorate (HMI, 1982) found that the level of satisfaction is influenced by the circumstances which surround the first post, including relief at finding a job at all. The support the probationers received from the head and members of staff, the availability of advice from the school at which they teach, the quality of relationships with head and colleagues, all tended to enhance the new teachers' satisfaction with their jobs. There was also a link between the probationers' satisfaction and both the schools' judgement of their effectiveness and HMI's assessment of their mastering of teaching skills: the better equipped teacher was the happier teacher. Both primary and secondary teachers were most satisfied when the school provided conditions which encouraged their full professional development.

3. IMPROVING TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Despite national differences in teacher-education programmes and local working environments, problems of beginning teachers are in general similar. This suggests that the prob-

lems of beginning teachers are almost universal. But the apparent universality of the problems also suggest that these problems cannot be attributed solely to personal characteristics of beginning teachers, to situational characteristics of the work place and to deficiencies in teacher-education programmes. Of course, these factors must be acknowledged, but the results also point to factors beyond those of the individual person, school, teacher- education programme and work place. Factors like the task of teaching a group of pupils, the status of the teaching profession, the lack of a codified body of spezialized knowledge, the lack of intellectual demands of teacher- education programmes, the cellular organization of the school which hamper mutual support and advice, the very sudden entry into the profession, must be considered too, if one looks for solutions of the problems of beginning teachers.

We pointed out earlier that knowledge of the problems faced by beginning teachers provides important information for the improvement of teacher-education programmes. If we design our teacher-education programmes according to the outlines as sketched by Smith (1980) in his publication 'A design for a school of pedagogy', many current problems of beginning teachers might be overcome. According to Smith, the domains of teacher-education, the areas in which training should be concentrated to develop the needed competencies, are:

1. Observation
2. Diagnosis of: a) student abilities; b) learning obstacles; c) environmental conditions; d) programmes of instruction
3. Planning of: a) short-range programme; b) long-range programme
4. Management of: a) space, time, and resources; b) instruction; c) students
5. Communication with: a) peers; b) parents and other laymen; c) students
6. Evaluation of a) student achievement and conduct; b) instruction programme

These domains are remarkably in line with the listed problems of beginning teachers.

The first domain is **observation**. The ability to observe a phenomenon objectively is one of the primary marks of a professional. The skills of observation are basic to the teacher's performance in the classroom. A teacher who cannot tell what is going on will be unable to respond appropriately and effectively to the events in the classroom. Learning to observe accurately is extremely difficult and requires extended practice in observing and analyzing behaviour.

Diagnosis pertains to at least four aspects of the teacher's work: pupil abilities, learning difficulties, environment, and programme of instruction. For pedagogical diagnosis, teachers need tests and other instruments for identifying pupils who suffer from physi-

cal handicaps (such as sight, hearing, mental and behavioural maladjustment) and for identifying obstacles to learning such as lack of knowledge or skill prerequisite to the learning of a task. The teacher must also have the knowledge and skill that enables him or her to identify physical and social environmental aspects that influence teaching and learning: temperature, arrangement of seats, bulletin board displays, appropriate books, audiovisual equipment, amount of warmth and freedom the teacher should display towards the pupils. The quality of diagnosing the instructional programme depends on the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter of instruction.

Planning has reference to what the teacher does to be prepared for the activities to be carried on during a class period, all class periods of a day, a week or longer. In teacher-education programmes most emphasis is given to planning for one or more class periods (instructional planning), and hardly to planning of a programme over a long period of time (programme planning). In planning, the teacher gives attention to the following: objectives, assignments, flexibility, instructional activities, needs of individual pupils, the content to be included or emphasized, activities the pupils are to engage in, conduct problems, and evaluation.

The fourth domain of training is **management**. This concept refers to the management of the process of instruction, the utilization of time, space, resources, and pupil contact. According to Smith this is the domain, with the exception of diagnosis, to which more time must be devoted to training than perhaps any other. "It is here that the prospective teacher must be disciplined in the skills of teaching and all various aspects of classroom management" (Smith, 1980, p. 85). I will elaborate more on this topic later on.

Professional **communication** also needs more attention in teacher-education programmes. The teacher converses not only with pupils but also with teachers, parents, administrative and supervisory staff. Not only in face-to-face settings but also in committees and organizations. This entails skills in listening, interpreting, translating, and responding in ways to elicit further information.

The domain of **evaluation** includes not only the techniques and procedures of evaluating pupil progress but also the analysis of data related to diagnosing and the planning of instruction. Hence, skills in evaluation need to be developed along with diagnostic and feedback skills (Smith, 1980, p. 84-85).

From what has already been said, teacher training is directed at the education of teachers who can work successfully in the classroom, in the school and in the local community. The (beginning) teacher is a **schoolteacher**, and not only a classroom-teacher (cf. Lortie, 1975). Competence in teaching is the ultimate goal. The skills of teaching cannot

be acquired by formal courses in method, or by uncontrolled experience in practice situations. Only by systematic training and guided practice.

Teacher-education programmes are weak on the integration of theory and practice. The problem of integrating theory and practice in teacher education is not easy to solve. Foundations courses, like pedagogy, didactics, educational psychology and sociology are treated in the abstract. The subject matter courses are more directly relevant to what has to be taught, but the nature of the experience of student teachers provides little opportunity for systematic cognitive and behavioural mastery of new teaching skills. This mastery implies moving back and forth from application of new skills to their underlying rationale (Fullan, 1985). The work of Joyce & Showers (1980) provides a clue to the designing of programmes that are effective in enabling teachers to develop and enrich their teaching skills and what the process of a successful integration of theory and practice might look like. After reviewing about 200 studies on training they identified the following effective components of training:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill and strategy. Studying theory provides the rationale and the conceptual basis of teaching. It can raise awareness and increase conceptual control, and aims to convince the trainee of the importance of new skills. Common forms of theory presentation are: seminars, lectures, mediated packages and booklets, conceptual instruction.
2. Modelling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching. The effectiveness of teacher training is enhanced if trainees view a demonstration of a particular teaching skill prior to the practice of that skill. Demonstration also clarifies the theory. Modelling may be comprised of actual demonstrations or demonstrations via video or film. Protocol materials (films or videotapes that exemplify specified pedagogical concepts) for teacher training are based on this concept of demonstration.
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings. Practice involves trying out the new skill, strategy or model. Practice may be done under simulated or actual classroom conditions. It may involve peers or small groups of children. Microteaching makes extensive use of this training activity.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance). Feedback involves observing the trainee for the collection of behavioural data and of feeding back the data to the observed person and using it to evaluate the teaching level. Feedback can be self-administrated by external or internal agents, or given by co-operating teachers, teacher educators (tutors) or peers.

5. Coaching for application (hands-on, in classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom). Coaching involves helping teachers to implement the newly acquired teaching skills or strategies in the classroom and to develop 'executive control'. Coaching has four major functions: providing companionship, providing technical feedback, analysing application, and adapting the skills to pupils (Joyce & Showers, 1983). Coaching is more effective when it is performed by teams of teachers working together to study new approaches to teaching (Showers, 1985). Sparks (1986) also found that peer observation and coaching is more effective than trainer-provided coaching. Her data suggested that watching a colleague teach was a powerful learning experience; the analysis and coding of teacher and pupil behaviour helped teachers to analyse their own behaviour more accurately and enabled them to make more significant changes later in their own teaching. Peer-observation and coaching also created a heightened sense of trust and esteem among group members. To institutionalize a new practice teachers need to have one-to-one and group contact to receive and give help, and to converse about the meaning of the change (Fullan, 1982).

Successful training programmes combine all five training components. The outcome of this research seems obvious: student teachers who are experimenting with different teaching approaches need 'on-the-job' coaching and support. Furthermore, theory and ideas only make sense if they can be applied, discussed and reapplied. Examples of successful school improvement projects suggest that changes in theory and practice take place over time and that it is likely that some behaviour change must precede changes in attitudes, beliefs and conceptions (Fullan, 1985; Guskey, 1986). The suggestion is then to integrate pre-service, induction and continuous in-service. From the viewpoint of implementation literature, pre-service programmes by themselves are not intensive enough, long enough or real enough to result in substantial benefits. Real life/on-the-job learning is essential to address the theory-practice issue. 'Reflection-in-action' is required for the continual interaction and integration between theory and practice (Fullan, 1985).

4. IMPROVING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT OF NEW TEACHERS

Teacher-education programmes should not ignore the outcomes of research. However, the available knowledge base is not always used. As has been noted above, maintaining classroom discipline is the most frequently mentioned problem by beginning teachers.

Until recently teacher training institutions paid little attention to this problem. Although teacher educators acknowledge that maintaining classroom discipline is a major objective of the teaching practice or practicum, they also acknowledge that student teachers do not possess the skills of classroom management prior to entering the teaching profession. Beginning teachers themselves admit that they lack the skills of classroom discipline (Veenman, Berkelaar & Berkelaar, 1983; Vonk, 1982; Dekkers & Van Soest, 1982). In other words, classroom discipline is found to be important, but teacher educators also feel they are relatively unsuccessful in providing the student teachers with this skill. This need not be so. Research clearly indicates ways of training student teachers in the skills of classroom discipline and management. Teacher educators should know and use this available research. In the fifth edition of the **Encyclopedia of Educational Research** Taylor & Usher (1982) reviewed the current state of the art of teaching relative to classroom discipline. They identified thirteen recently developed strategies, in most instances supported by a particular set of theoretical assumptions and research findings. I will not discuss them here, but these strategies vary from communication skills, values clarification, transactional analysis to teacher effectiveness training, reality therapy, assertive discipline and behaviour modification. Instead, I will discuss some findings from the research on classroom management. This concept is broader than the notion of classroom discipline. It includes all the things teachers must do to foster pupil involvement and cooperation in classroom activities and to establish a productive working environment. Kounin's research (1970) laid the groundwork for research in this area by identifying several general characteristics of classroom management that were consistently related to good pupil behaviour. Kounin's work focused on preventing misbehaviour. Some examples of effective teacher behaviours were:

- with-it-ness: the degree to which a teacher communicates his/her awareness of pupil behaviour.
- overlapping: teacher's ability to attend to more than one event or issue at a time.
- smoothness: moving through a lesson by not interrupting seatwork or an instruction sequence with irrelevant information and not being distracted by behaviour or events that are not disturbing the lessons in any noticeable way.
- momentum: avoiding behaviour that slows down a lesson.
- group alerting: the teacher's ability to keep children attentive and alert with the group by choosing reciters randomly, creating suspense, using chorus responses, etc.
- accountability: monitoring pupil performance by e.g. requiring children to show work, recite as a group, circulating to check pupils' work.

More recently, at the University of Texas, a series of studies was conducted to find out how teachers establish and maintain classroom management. The studies focused on the

beginning of the school year to find out how effective teachers establish and maintain their management systems and to identify sources of management problems in the classes of less effective teachers. These studies indicated that the roots of a teacher's success or problems in managing a class could often be seen in the first weeks of school. At the beginning of the school year, effective teachers showed evidence of careful planning and detailed thinking about procedures and pupil behaviour in their classrooms. During the first days of school, effective classroom managers carefully taught pupils how to follow classroom procedures and rules. Until procedures and rules were well established, teachers relied on whole-group activities that allowed them to stay in charge of all of the pupils continuously. The selected activities that involve the pupils allow them to be successful and make them feel comfortable with their new class. Once school was underway, effective teachers maintained their management system by actively monitoring pupil behaviour and work, by stopping inappropriate behaviour quickly and in a consistent manner, by keeping pupils accountable for their work and by giving them frequent feedback. These strategies helped teachers maintain task-oriented classes that functioned smoothly throughout the year (Sanford, Emmer & Clements, 1983; Emmer & Evertson, 1981).

Beginning teachers often overlook the need to decide on and consistently implement a system of consequences to go with their classroom rules and procedures. Moskowitz & Hayman (1976) compared the teaching behaviour of first-year teachers over the course of a school year with the teaching behaviour of experienced 'best' teachers (chosen from nominations by pupils). At the end of the school year, the major differences between groups of teachers occurred in control, discipline, and immediate feedback behaviour. Beginning teachers had more difficulty with control. They seemed to allow a lot of disorder to go unnoticed, as if it would go away by itself if not acknowledged. The best teachers were able to increase student involvement (on-task behaviour) in the class throughout the year, where as new teachers were not. The best teachers focused more on setting expectations and establishing appropriate behaviour on the first day. These findings support the Texas' studies.

The management principles that resulted from these studies were used to develop teachers' manuals to be used in experimental studies to improve the classroom management strategies of teachers in primary and secondary education. Teachers who received the materials and attended the workshops at the beginning of the school year used the recommended management strategies and behaviour significantly more than did teachers who did not receive the materials. In addition, use of the recommended strategies helped teachers establish higher levels of pupil task engagement and cooperation (Evertson, Emmer, Sanford & Clements, 1983; Evertson, 1985). At this moment we are using

these management principles in a staff development programme to train (new) teachers in dealing with mixed-age classes (Lem, Veenman, Nijssen, Lassche, 1987).

Because the first days of school are crucial for the teacher's success or problems in managing a class, beginning teachers need to know how to bring the class to order quickly, explain rules and procedures, find out important information about the pupils, and let them know what to expect in the coming days and weeks. A successful first day of school can literally set the stage for a successful school year. From this point of view Brooks & Shouse (1984) trained beginning secondary teachers quite specifically on how to establish control on the first day of school. Beginning teachers were instructed to attend a special short training activity. The training included the following recommendations: 1) That teachers select and sequence, in order, the following major activities during the first day: take roll and determine seating, presentation of classroom rules and procedures, presentation of course introduction and, if time permitted, solicit personal information from pupils or self-disclosure about themselves; 2) That they maintain as much direct eye contact with the entire class as possible and not focus on individual pupils to the exclusion of the group; 3) That they identify specific rules for classroom entry, materials and classroom use, teacher - pupil interaction, pupil emergencies and leaving the classroom. The teachers were encouraged to present the rules, provide a pupil centred rationale for the rules, explain the consequence for noncompliance and provide behavioural examples of an infraction and compliance; 5) They were encouraged to smile more as they presented the course introduction and not smile as they presented the rules and procedures.

By means of videotaped observations the management strategies used by experienced classroom managers during their first and second days of class were illuminated. After a twelve week control trained beginning teachers were perceived by their pupils as significantly more specific, providing practice in class, task oriented, variable in instruction, explanatory, supportive and asking interesting questions.

From these examples one may conclude that teacher educators can do a lot to alleviate the most prominent problem of beginning teachers: classroom discipline and management. Research on classroom discipline and management suggests a number of ways teacher educators can help beginning teachers with the important task of organizing and managing classrooms. Nothing is more harmful for the self-esteem of beginning teachers than an ill-managed class. The first year of teaching is the most crucial period in the development of a teacher's career and this development should not be blocked prematurely.

5. INDUCTION SUPPORT OF NEW TEACHERS

The professional development of beginning teachers may be hampered by problems, stress, anxiety, frustration and isolation experienced in the first years of teaching. When left to rely on their own sink-or-swim learning and experience, beginning teachers may develop techniques and teaching styles that will ultimately prevent them from being effective teachers. An example of this situation is given by Huling-Austin (1986). One beginning teacher was having difficulty controlling pupils during class discussions. Her solution was to eliminate classroom discussions from her repertoire of activities. Thus, she eliminated a useful teaching technique in favour of a survival strategy. Given the widespread agreement that pre-service preparation alone can, at best, prepare teachers to a point of readiness to enter the profession (cf. Grant & Zeichner, 1981), resources have been made available in several countries to alleviate the problems of beginning teachers and to improve the mode of new teachers' entry to teaching. The term **teacher induction** generally is used to refer to deliberate actions to provide entry-level support for beginning teachers, to the formal initiation of newly trained teachers into the profession (Johnston & Ryan, 1983; Fisher, 1984). According to Schlechty (1985), the purpose of induction is "to develop in new members of an occupation those skills, forms of knowledge, attitudes and values that are necessary to effectively carry out their occupational roles" (p. 37).

Though the need for help is recognized, formal programmes for the induction of teachers are not implemented on a large scale. Yarger (1982) presents several impediments to induction programme development: a) lack of institutional responsibility for such programmes; b) the public response to improve teaching appears to be embedded in competency tests rather than in training programmes; c) politic power struggle in teacher education precludes the luxury of induction programme development; d) logistical considerations; and e) lack of financial support. One of the effects of the declining need for new teachers and the concomitant decline in teacher education enrollments may be that teacher education personnel are now available for designing programmes for induction and in-service education.

Information on induction programmes that have been established comes from the United States, United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. Nationwide induction programmes hardly exist, most programmes are experimental in nature, although the commitment to formal provisions is growing (see e.g. the special issue of **Journal of Teacher Education**, 1986, no. 1).

Components often included in induction programmes are: printed materials on employment conditions and school regulations, orientation meetings and visits to the school prior to commencing teaching, seminars and training sessions on curriculum and effective teaching, observations by supervisors/peers/assessment teams, follow-up conferences with observers, group meetings between beginning teachers for emotional support, consultations with experienced teachers, the assignment of an experienced teacher to be a 'helping teacher' (mentor), opportunities to observe other teachers, the assignment of the beginning teacher to a teaching team, extra released time, reduction in teaching load.

Research on the effects of induction programmes is scarce. The evaluation data that does exist does little to illuminate the superiority of any one provision over another, or the nature of the impact of specific induction practices on the development of teachers or pupil achievement (Hall, 1982, Tisher, 1984). The research that has been done is largely characterized by reported experiences of new teachers. This research indicates that beginning teachers are, by and large, satisfied with formal induction programmes which they rate as 'helpful, good or valuable'. One example is the Teacher Induction Pilot Schemes (TIPS) project which has been executed in the United Kingdom (1973-1979). The three main features of the funded schemes were that probationers had a reduced teaching load (75%), teacher tutors were appointed and trained to help probationers within the schools and courses were arranged for probationers at outside centres. The additional 'free time' provided by the reduced teaching load and the appointment of a tutor was judged by the probationers to be effective in meeting their teaching and general professional needs (Bolam et al, 1979). In the study of Bradley & Eggleston (1978) patterns of induction with 20% release-time proved to be effective in the perceptions of the probationers in terms of job adjustment (workload, frustration).

In the United States an increasing number of states are implementing, developing or planning assessment-oriented induction programmes for beginning teachers as part of their certification process. School districts demand competence from their beginning teachers. A dominant characteristic of these programmes is the appointment of an experienced teacher or a beginning teacher support staff (e.g. a peer teacher, a building level administrator and one other professional educator) to assist beginning teachers in their continuing professional development and assess them for teacher certification. Data that reflected the beginning teachers' perceptions of programme impact indicated that for many beginning teachers the most positive force of their experience was the peer or mentor teacher. The peer or mentor teacher was rated as highly influential early in the year and increasingly influential as the year progressed. They were valued as sources of practical information and as sources of psychological and colleagial support. They could assist beginning teachers in obtaining resources and materials, in applying a given teaching

strategy, in giving guidance and ideas related to classroom management and discipline, in giving information related to school procedures and guidelines, in providing feedback and evaluation. Beginning teacher strongly endorsed the role of the mentor in induction programmes. In addition the findings suggested that having a mentor who teaches the same grade level or subject matter as the new teacher was highly desirable (Hoffman et al., 1986; Huffman & Leak, 1986; Odell, 1986; Varak et al., 1986).

It is important to note that the goal of improving teaching will be met only if the programme operates from a clearly articulated vision of what constitutes good and effective teaching and focus on the goals of developing a reflective orientation and the skills essential to self-evaluation (Fox & Singletary, 1986).

Recently a Dutch governmental advisory committee - in which I had the honour to participate - advised the Minister of Education to create induction programmes for beginning secondary teachers in their first year to ease the transition from student to professional. We proposed a reduced teaching load in the form of a guaranteed temporary appointment of a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 20 lessons per week and two course-hours to be provided by teacher training colleges. The responsibility for such programmes should be shared by the teacher training colleges and the schools (Hanselman Committee, 1986).

Finally, I want to underline that induction programmes are not the panacea for all the needs of our educational system. Hulsing-Austin (1986) summarizes what induction programmes can and cannot do. Induction programmes should not be expected to overcome major problems related to the school context like misplacements (a teacher assigned out of his/her discipline), overloads (too many preparations), overcrowded classes, a school climate that is not conducive to instruction. Induction programmes can 1) improve the teaching performance of beginners who have potential; 2) increase the retention of promising beginning teachers during the induction years; 3) promote the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers by orientating them to the work-place and fostering self-esteem and 4) satisfy mandated requirements related to induction and certification.

6. DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVES OF TEACHERS

The reviewed studies on problems of beginning teachers show that not all beginning teachers are plagued or troubled by problems or experience these problems to the same degree or intensity. This raises the question: what factors account for these differences?

An answer to this question is important for designing instructional strategies and induction programmes that match the needs, concerns and possibilities of teachers.

Recently several approaches have been developed to look more carefully at the process of becoming a teacher. Some of these approaches, labeled **teacher development**, present frameworks for a more comprehensive understanding of the problems beginning teachers experience. They provide a conceptualization of individual differences among teachers that relates to such questions as becoming a teacher, personal effectiveness, and developing a professional identity. From these approaches the problems of beginning teachers may be regarded as necessary transitional states along the road to higher levels of performance. At the same time, these approaches provide some guidance in designing interventions for enhancing the developmental process. I will briefly outline three approaches.

6.1. Developmental stages of concerns

The first approach involves the empirically constructed theory of teacher development by Fuller and her colleagues (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975). Integrating the existing research on teachers' concerns over time with the research on the perceived problems of student teachers, beginning teachers, and experienced teachers, she hoped to find "teaching phases" which could help teacher educators in choosing more appropriate 'personalized' training programmes. "The purpose of the conceptual framework is to articulate the components or steps by which an educator or team of educators and a learner can set goals and implement procedures tailored to the personal needs of that individual learner" (Fuller, 1974).

The most recent description (Fuller & Bown, 1975) posits three distinguishable kinds and stages of concerns that are characteristic of teachers. The first phase involves survival concerns. These are concerns about one's adequacy and survival as a teacher, class control, being liked by pupils, and being evaluated. The second phase includes teaching situation concerns. These are concerns about limitations and frustrations in the teaching situation, methods and materials, and mastery of skills within the teaching learning situation. The third phase reflects concerns about pupils, their learning, their social and emotional needs, and relating to pupils as individuals. Fuller believes that later concerns cannot emerge until earlier concerns are resolved. In this respect the stages of concern resemble Maslow's (1970) hierarchy-of needs theory. Needs such as security, affiliation, and self-esteem must be satisfied first before beginning teachers can behave as autonomous or self-actualized persons and respond more adequately to the realities of their circumstances in order to perform a successful and satisfying job.

Based on his research on the supervision of beginning teachers Griffioen (1980) added to Fuller's third stage - the impact stage - concerns with respect to the school as an organization. Beginning teachers also had concerns about their position in the power structure of the school and their relationships with colleagues and the administration.

Katz (1972) posits four developmental stages of preschool teachers and the training needs necessary at each of the stages. **Stage 1 (Survival)** lasts about one-two years and requires technical, on-site support. **Stage 2 (Consolidation)** lasts into the third year and requires on-site assistance, access to specialists, advice of colleagues and consultants. **Stage 3 (Renewal)** lasts through year four and conferences, professional organizations, visits to demonstration projects, teacher centres, and journals are prescribed ways of meeting training needs. **Stage 4 (Maturity)** extends through the fifth year and beyond and seminars, institutes, courses, degree programmes, books, conferences and journals are viewed as ways to meet professional development needs.

Addressing the concerns and developmental stages during teacher preparation and early in-service period will increase beginning teachers feelings of adequacy, if what is taught is consonant with teachers' needs and matched to the dominant concerns or stages.

6.2. The cognitive developmental framework

A second approach to the study of teacher career development addresses the teacher as an adult learner. It is based on the theories and concepts of cognitive development which assume that human development results from changes in cognitive structures. The quality of the internal, mediating, cognitive process varies by age and stages of development. The cognitive developmental approach draws theories and ideas from the studies of Piaget in cognitive development, of Kohlberg in moral decision-making, of Loevinger in ego development, and of Hunt in conceptual development. All posit a sequence of cognitive structures, or stages, which are organized in an invariant, hierarchical sequence from less complex to more complex.

Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall (1983) present evidence supporting the relationships between stages and different behaviours: Persons judged at higher stages of development function more complexly, possess a wider repertoire of behavioural skills, perceive problems more broadly, and can respond more accurately and empathetically to the needs of others. Studies of teachers also support this finding. Research on teacher effectiveness indicates that teachers at higher cognitive developmental levels function better in the classroom and may be more flexible, stress tolerant, adaptive, and better able to assume multiple perspectives and to apply a greater variety of teaching strategies and coping behaviours than teachers at lower cognitive developmental levels.

Glassberg's (1980) study on beginning teachers indicates that beginning teachers at different developmental stages perceived and processed classroom problems in different ways. Beginning teachers at lower stages viewed themselves as defensive and unable to successfully motivate pupils and stated that the administration of the school should assume responsibility for discipline in the classroom. Beginning teachers at higher stages of development emphasized the importance of respect, of being flexible and tolerant, of communicating empathy, the necessity of understanding individual differences, and the desire to respond in a manner that facilitates the academic and personal growth of pupils. Beginning teachers at different developmental stages perceive classroom events in different ways.

Based on the idea that teachers at higher developmental stages are more effective in managing classrooms, educational programmes have been created to promote such development (Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980; Oja, 1981; Oja & Ham, 1984). To function at higher stages of development, teachers must be supported and challenged according to the characteristic needs of their developmental stages. Thies-Sprinthall (1984, 1986) designed training programmes, based on cognitive developmental theory, for supervising teachers to improve the supervising teaching-preservice teacher relationship, and for mentor teachers who would serve as an example to the beginning teacher in induction programmes

These programmes are based on the following premises (Thies-Sprinthall, 1984):

1. Growth toward more complex levels of cognitive-developmental functioning appears to be most influenced by placing persons in qualitatively significant role taking experiences. For inservice teachers the new role would be that of differentiated supervision method. This means selecting experiences which will stretch the person's functioning somewhat, but not call for functioning at a level much beyond the current preferred style. This is referred to as 'an optimal mismatch'.
2. In addition to 'real' experience, there is genuine need for careful and continuous reflection. To insure that reflection occurs, there is often a need to provide careful feedback to aid the process of examining the experiences.
3. Balance is needed between real experience and discussion/reflection. The course should provide for cycles of experiential application and intellectual analysis.
4. Since developmental stage growth represents functioning at a new and more complex level, instruction needs to provide for both personal support and challenge. Support is necessary in order to facilitate the risk-taking which the learners must take and overcome the dissonance and fear involved in such new learning. The challenge is that the participants are required to 'do' the role-taking.

5. Programmes need to be continuous. A brief workshop will not produce significant developmental change. The time for significant change should probably extend over at least a six-month to one-year period with meetings at regular, usually weekly, intervals.

The actual training components were the same as identified by Joyce & Showers (1980): describing and understanding the model, viewing the model, planning and peer teaching, adapting the model and coaching. Besides the action-reflection, role-taking approach, the curriculum included e.g. the following topics: Fuller's work on concerns, models of supervision and coaching, practice supervisory conferences, practice levels of active listening and responsive teaching, implementing a variety of teaching methods in the classroom, using a variety of observation instruments, journal writing for reflection, problem solving, ending a relationship.

The results of these programmes showed modest and positive gains in conceptual development of supervising teachers, and increased self-knowledge. Mentor teachers commented that they were more effective teachers in their classrooms and were more able to analyze themselves and their supervision from a variety of perspectives. Beginning teachers viewed the trained mentors as being helpful with personal concerns. Also the beginners thought that classroom management, organizational issues, and the understanding of the induction sequence were helpful. In almost every instance the mentor was viewed as a positive resource (Thies- Sprinthall, 1984, 1986).

The cognitive developmental approach is recognized but there are obstacles to its implementation. To quote Thies-Sprinthall (1984): "The work itself, in the form of field research and programme elaboration, is extremely difficult".

6.3. Teacher socialization

Another way to look at the entry of beginning teachers into the profession is to consider it from the perspective of socialization into the norms and standards of the school as an existing organization. This approach is focused on the interplay between individuals' needs, capabilities, beliefs, intentions and institutional constraints. Often used stages of change are initiation, internalization, and evolution, or compliance, identification and internalization. According to Schlechty (1985) the primary aim of induction is or should be to create conditions that cause new members to internalize the norms of the occupation to the point that the primary means of social control (i.e., control over performance) is self-control. Effective induction programmes are characterized by a set of clearly

articulated expectations and norms, procedures for recruitment and selection, distinct stages and statuses, provision for mutual support among status equals, a common vocabulary (i.e., based on the literature on effective teaching and schools), a commitment to positive reward and growth of teachers, and the diffusion of responsibility for evaluation, training and support.

The aforementioned shifts in attitudes of beginning teachers in their first year are an aspect of this socialization process. These shifts point to the adjustment phenomenon of that process. Again it should be noted that some beginning teachers experience significant shifts in attitudes and norms while others do not. Adjustment is not the only outcome of induction. This is wrong. The primary goal should be self-control in an organizational context.

To examine the degree to which (and under what conditions) beginning teachers adopted or failed to adopt the cultures and traditions of their workplaces, and the extent to which (and under what conditions) these beginning teachers abandoned or maintained teaching perspectives brought to the first year of teaching. Zeichner & Tabachnick (1985) studied the development of teacher perspectives in a two-year longitudinal study. Teacher perspectives were defined as the ways teachers think about their work. A severe limitation of this study is that only four beginning teachers from the original group of thirteen student teachers were followed into their first year of teaching.

To understand the degree to which these four beginning teachers conformed to institutional norms Zeichner & Tabachnick used Lacey's concept of 'social strategy', defined as the purposeful selection of ideas and actions by prospective teachers and the working out of their interrelationships in specific situations. Lacey (1977) identified three distinct strategies: a) "internalized adjustment, in which the individual complies with the constraints and believes that the constraints of the situation are for the best"; b) 'strategic compliance, in which the individual complies with the authority figure's definition of the situation and the constraints of the situation but retains private reservations about them"; and c) "strategic redefinition of the situation implies that change is brought about by individuals who do not possess the formal power to do so. They achieve change by causing or enabling those with formal power to change their interpretation of what is happening in the situation" (Lacey, 1977, pp. 72-73).

The experience of only one of the four teachers conformed to the commonly accepted scenario of a loss of idealism during the first year of teaching. Two of the teachers were able to maintain their initial perspectives despite pressures to change. The fourth teacher, who was in a very similar school as in her student teaching, was able to continue to develop her teaching perspectives in a manner consistent with her development during student teaching with the encouragement and support of those in her school. The

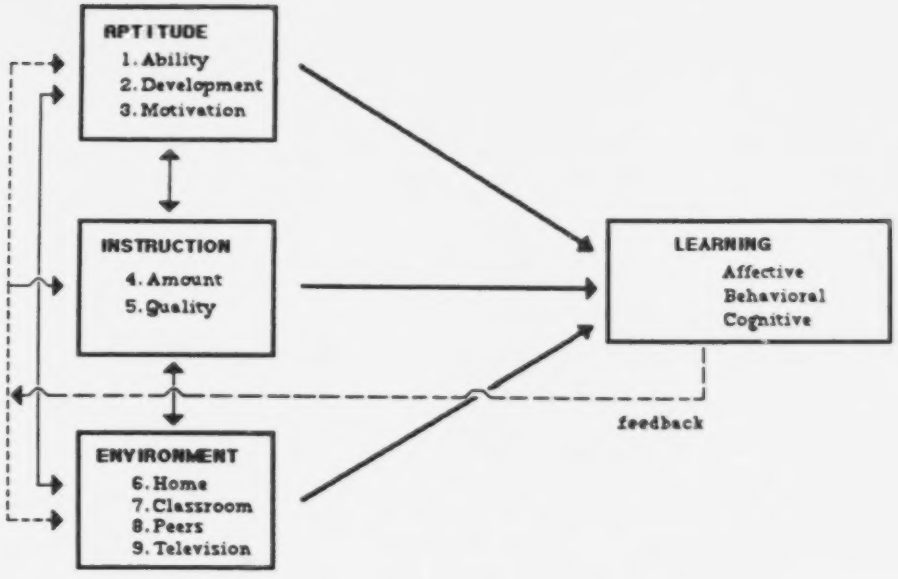
implication of this study is that a loss of idealism is not an inevitable result of induction into teaching and that the efforts of formal teacher preparation programmes are not necessarily in vain (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985).

7. REFORMING TEACHER EDUCATION

In a recently published study by the Dutch schools inspectorate it was found that 45 percent of the prospective elementary-school teachers could not pass a multiple-choice, sixth-grade arithmetic test. Based on these results the Minister of Education decided that high school graduates contemplating teaching careers must have majored in mathematics as one of the subjects in their high school programme. Raising the admission standards in intial teacher education, in this instance by requiring a major in mathematics, will in itself not improve teacher education or result in more qualified teachers. Neither will an extension of teacher-preparation programmes with a fifth year, nor more induction programmes be an improvement in themselves. These limited responses do not address the problem of enhancing the quality of teacher education. Educational outcomes are always determined by a set of interrelated antecedents. This point is illustrated by the theory of educational productivity as developed by Walberg. Based on extensive empirial data Walberg (1984) identified nine important factors of educational productivity. These nine factors fall into three groups: student aptitude, instruction, and environment. Student aptitude includes: 1) ability or prior achievement; 2) development or stage of maturation; 3 motivation. Instruction includes: 4) the amount of time students engage in learning; 5) the quality of the instructional experience. Environmental factors include: 6) the home; 7) the classroom social group; 8) the peer-group, and 9) use of out-of-school time or the amount of leisure-time (e.g. television viewing). These nine factors require optimization to increase affective, behavioural, and cognitive learning (see Figure 1). This model of educational productivity suggests that neither time (e.g. extended education programmes) or higher admission standards alone nor any other factor by itself can solve the productivity problem. Thus, no single essential factor overwhelms the others; all appear important (Walberg, 1984; Fraser et al. 1987).

Granted, these productive factors were probed for their significance in promoting learning in large sets of statistical data on elementary and high school students. But the message for improving teacher education and teacher quality is clear: no single factor or improvement of one single factor is dominant in learning outcomes. In the context of teacher education learned outcomes could be defined as: expert subject matter knowledge, systematic knowledge of teaching, and reflective practical experience.

Figure 1. Causal Influences on Student Learning (Walberg, 1984)



In the context of teacher education and teacher quality other factors than the nine considered here are important. Even better than any documents published in recent times, the Holmes Group (1986) and the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) identified the problems we must discuss in order to improve teacher education. These reports point out that the reform of teacher education is connected with the reform of teaching. 'Teacher education is largely a creature of teaching itself: its career opportunities, reward structure, traditions of recruitment, working conditions, and authority relations in schools. Without substantial changes in the career of teaching, improvements in the selection and training of teachers will inevitably wither and evaporate' (Sedlak, 1987). Both reports offer a renewed image of the teacher which rests in the recognition that teachers need professional status and professional compensation, more and better preparation, more autonomy and less regulation. The current working conditions do not foster professional pride, a flat career-ladder discourages competent students from entering the teaching profession. A differentiated profession is suggested. The Holmes Group recommends a three-tiered structure: instructors or beginning teachers at the bottom, professional teachers in the middle, and career professional at the top. The Carnegie Task Force propose a four-tiered structure: licensed or beginning teachers, certified teachers, advanced certificate holders, and lead teachers. Teachers at different levels have different forms of competence, responsibility and autonomy, and should be paid at different rates. Both groups agree that teacher education needs to be restructured in the direction of: a new, profession-based, national teacher examination; a broad liberal arts education-programme of four years culminating in the mastering of at least one subject area; a

two-year specialization programme for professional teachers at graduate level; and a structured, clinical induction programme. To create a learning environment for structured and well-supervised clinical experience the Holmes report proposes the establisment of 'professional development schools' (in the words of the Carnegie report 'clinical schools'). They would serve the same function in education as teaching hospitals serve in the medical profession. These schools would provide superior opportunities for beginning teachers to develop their professional competence with the help of experienced lead teachers. New teachers would not be forced to sink or swim on the job, as they currently do. These changes will strengthen the teaching profession and are a great challenge for its implementation.

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